

Supplemental online material

This appendix presents additional substantive results and results for robustness tests.

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A. Full results including control variables

Table A.1: Impact on Intergenerational Mobility, including all covariates

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>	
	<i>Intergenerational Mobility</i>	
	<i>(1)</i>	<i>(2)</i>
Lynch rate	-0.022*** (0.006)	-0.030*** (0.007)
Prop. slave, 1860	0.030 (0.024)	0.052** (0.026)
County Area, 2000	0.026*** (0.006)	0.021* (0.012)
Latitude, 2000	-0.151*** (0.030)	-0.155*** (0.035)
Latitude squared, 2000	0.002*** (0.0005)	0.002*** (0.001)
Longitude, 2000	0.092*** (0.029)	0.057* (0.032)
Longitude squared, 2000	0.001*** (0.0002)	0.0003* (0.0002)
Ruggedness	0.00000 (0.0001)	0.00003 (0.0001)
Gini coefficient, 1860	0.087** (0.044)	0.054 (0.073)
Prop. small farms, 1860	0.017 (0.027)	-0.117*** (0.039)
Total population, 1860	-0.008 (0.006)	0.050*** (0.014)
Farm value per capita, 1860	-0.011* (0.007)	-0.015 (0.011)
Total improved acreage, 1860	-0.001 (0.006)	-0.053*** (0.012)
Prop. free black, 1860	0.524** (0.203)	0.368 (0.226)
Rail access, 1860	-0.002 (0.007)	-0.024*** (0.008)
Water access, 1860	-0.009 (0.006)	-0.018** (0.008)
Constant	5.185*** (1.277)	3.858*** (1.414)
State fixed effects	Y	Y
Moran eigenvectors	N	Y
Observations	930	799
R ²	0.344	0.428
Adjusted R ²	0.323	0.378
Residual Std. Error	0.396 (df = 900)	0.385 (df = 734)

Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

Table A.2: Male and Female, including all covariates

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>	
	<i>Intergenerational Mobility</i>	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Lynch rate	−0.034*** (0.008)	−0.012** (0.006)
Prop. slave, 1860	0.055* (0.032)	0.019 (0.024)
County Area, 2000	0.028*** (0.009)	0.020*** (0.007)
Latitude, 2000	−0.191*** (0.041)	−0.177*** (0.032)
Latitude squared, 2000	0.003*** (0.001)	0.003*** (0.0005)
Longitude, 2000	0.065* (0.038)	0.089*** (0.029)
Longitude squared, 2000	0.0004* (0.0002)	0.001*** (0.0002)
Ruggedness	0.00004 (0.0001)	0.00002 (0.0001)
Gini coefficient, 1860	0.110* (0.059)	0.058 (0.045)
Prop. small farms, 1860	0.007 (0.036)	0.052* (0.027)
Total population, 1860	−0.012 (0.008)	−0.002 (0.006)
Farm value per capita, 1860	−0.027*** (0.009)	−0.0004 (0.007)
Total improved acreage, 1860	−0.002 (0.008)	0.004 (0.006)
Prop. free black, 1860	0.480* (0.269)	0.556*** (0.203)
Rail access, 1860	−0.004 (0.009)	−0.005 (0.007)
Water access, 1860	−0.002 (0.008)	−0.012* (0.006)
Constant	4.587*** (1.700)	5.440*** (1.293)
State fixed effects	Y	Y
Observations	868	865
R ²	0.313	0.336
Adjusted R ²	0.289	0.313
Residual Std. Error	0.520 (df = 838)	0.392 (df = 835)

Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

B. Matched and Weighted sample results

Matching

Figure B.1 shows the mean difference for the genetic matching sample with Mahalanobis distance, where the dichotomized treatment group is any county with a lynch rate greater than 0. The control group consists of cases with a rate equal to 0. I match on the same covariates used in the regressions: proportion of enslaved people, county area, latitude, longitude, ruggedness, Gini coefficient, proportion of small farms, total population, farm value per capita, total improved acreage, proportion of free Black, rail access, and water access. The figure shows that balance was improved on almost all variables after adjustment, bringing most below the threshold of .1 for absolute mean differences.¹

Table B.1 confirms the main results using treatment and control covariate distributions that more closely resemble each other. The results provide further evidence of a historical correlation between lynching and intergenerational mobility.

Weighting

This study dichotomizes the treatment variable in order to utilize more well-established propensity score techniques; however, this comes with the risk of losing important information and underestimating the variance. A possible solution for keeping information and making the treatment independent from the covariates is weighting². Weighting methods for continuous treatments aim to make the treatment independent of the covariates in the weighted sample while retaining many of the well-known assessing and estimation techniques used by researchers conducting a matching analysis.

I use distance covariance optimal weights as suggested by Huling, Greifer, and Chen for continu-

¹ I also examine the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for all match models, as recommended by Austin and Stuart (2015). The KS statistic is bounded at 0 and 1, with 0 indicating perfectly identical distributions and 1 indicating perfect separation between distributions; values closer to 0 indicate balance. All matched models have a KS statistic close to 0.

² Huling, Greifer, and Chen, “Independence Weights for Causal Inference with Continuous Treatments”

ous treatments and report the balance mean difference between treatment and control units in Figure B.1. A reduced mean difference between units suggests that weighting led to substantial balance improvement.

I regress the outcome variable on the lynch rate and the 1860 covariates. Column 2 of Table B.1 shows these results and confirms an association between lynchings and immobility when using a weighted sample.

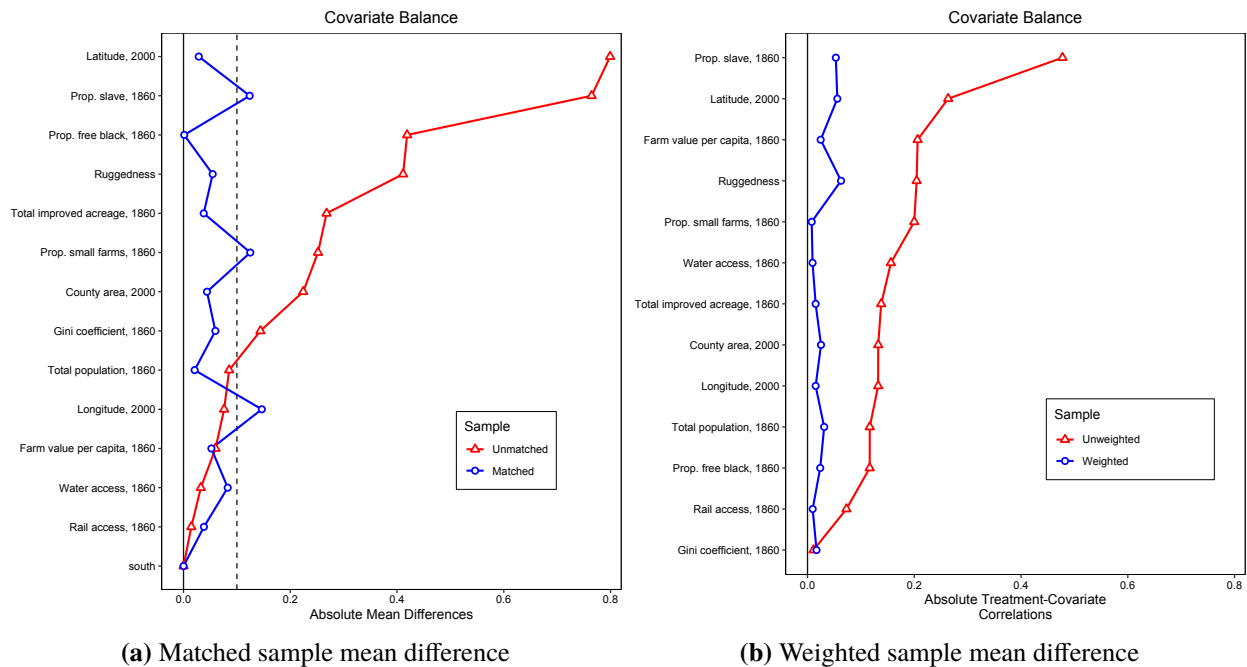


Figure B.1: Both figures show the mean difference before and after matching and weighting. To generate the matched sample for the lynch dummy treatment variable I use genetic matching with Mahalanobis distance. To generate the weighted sample for the continuous treatment variable I use distance covariance optimal weights.

Table B.1: Matched and Weighted sample results, including all covariates

	Matched Sample 1	Weighted Sample 2
Lynch Dummy	-0.010* (0.006)	
Lynch rate		-0.024*** (0.006)
Prop. slave, 1860	0.033** (0.016)	0.043* (0.023)
County Area, 2000	0.016*** (0.006)	0.011 (0.007)
Latitude, 2000	-0.072*** (0.021)	-0.163*** (0.034)
Latitude squared, 2000	0.001*** (0.0003)	0.002*** (0.001)
Longitude, 2000	0.038** (0.018)	0.155*** (0.031)
Longitude squared, 2000	0.0002** (0.0001)	0.001*** (0.0002)
Ruggedness	-0.00002 (0.00004)	0.0002*** (0.0001)
Gini coefficient, 1860	0.031 (0.038)	0.063 (0.047)
Prop. small farms, 1860	-0.002 (0.022)	-0.005 (0.030)
Total population, 1860	-0.001 (0.005)	0.012 (0.007)
Farm value per capita, 1860	-0.003 (0.005)	-0.012* (0.007)
Total improved acreage, 1860	-0.008 (0.005)	-0.013* (0.007)
Prop. free black, 1860	-0.031 (0.144)	0.073 (0.159)
Rail access, 1860	0.003 (0.004)	-0.023*** (0.006)
Water access, 1860	-0.004 (0.005)	-0.011* (0.006)
Constant	3.090*** (0.804)	8.309*** (1.334)
State fixed effects	Y	Y
Observations	314	930
R ²	0.282	0.311
Adjusted R ²	0.209	0.289
Residual Std. Error	0.149 (df = 284)	0.073 (df = 900)

Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01 Coefficients in model 1 are from a regression on the matched data with a dichotomized lynch rate dummy variable. Coefficients in model 2 are from a regression on the weighted data. Weights are generated using distance covariance optimal weights.

C. Alternative measures of lynchings

I test the sensitivity of the results by using different measurements of lynchings. The first alternative measurement is an absolute count of lynchings, similar to that of Tolnay and Beck. The second measurement is the total number of lynchings per 10,000 Black population in 1900, similar to Williams (2022). Model 1 and 2 in Table C.1 indicate that the findings are robust to different specifications of lynchings.

Table C.1: Association is robust to different measures of lynching

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>	
	Intergenerational Mobility	
	(1)	(2)
Lynch count, 1865-1940	-0.002*** (0.001)	
Lynchings per 10,000 1920 Residents, 1882-1930		-0.007* (0.004)
Prop. slave, 1860	0.031 (0.024)	0.017 (0.024)
County Area, 2000	0.026*** (0.007)	0.013* (0.007)
Latitude, 2000	-0.160*** (0.030)	-0.152*** (0.031)
Latitude squared, 2000	0.003*** (0.0005)	0.002*** (0.0005)
Longitude, 2000	0.093*** (0.029)	0.096*** (0.030)
Longitude squared, 2000	0.001*** (0.0002)	0.001*** (0.0002)
Ruggedness	0.00001 (0.0001)	0.00001 (0.0001)
Gini coefficient, 1860	0.091** (0.044)	0.112** (0.046)
Prop. small farms, 1860	0.020 (0.027)	0.015 (0.027)
Total population, 1860	-0.009 (0.006)	-0.011* (0.006)
Farm value per capita, 1860	-0.012* (0.007)	-0.016** (0.007)
Total improved acreage, 1860	-0.001 (0.006)	-0.0004 (0.006)
Prop. free black, 1860	0.490** (0.204)	0.425** (0.213)
Rail access, 1860	-0.004 (0.007)	-0.003 (0.007)
Water access, 1860	-0.010 (0.006)	-0.006 (0.006)
Constant	4.157*** (1.296)	4.222*** (1.313)
State fixed effects	Y	Y
Observations	930	905
R ²	0.343	0.351
Adjusted R ²	0.322	0.329
Residual Std. Error	0.396 (df = 900)	0.395 (df = 875)

Note:

*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

D. Alternative measures of the South

Regional definitions of the South vary from source to source and are defined as much by geography as culture. To ensure that the results are not sensitive to definitions of the South, I use two additional measures. The first is the US Census definition of the South, which includes Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. This definition excludes Kentucky and Missouri used in the original sample but includes Delaware and Maryland. The second definition is limited to the Deep South: Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina. The results, reported in Table D.1, are similar to the main results. Model 1 is of note since it extends the analysis to include states thought of as the North (Delaware and Maryland) but with a lower proportion of enslaved people in 1860 (2% of the population in Delaware and 13% in Maryland, compared to 31% in the neighboring state of Virginia), indicating a robust association between lynching and immobility even in lower slaveholding counties.

Table D.1: Association is robust to different definitions of the South

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>	
	Intergenerational Mobility	
	Census South (1)	Deep South (2)
Lynch rate	-0.022*** (0.006)	-0.021*** (0.006)
Prop. slave, 1860	0.046* (0.024)	-0.030 (0.034)
County Area, 2000	0.023*** (0.007)	-0.013 (0.011)
Latitude, 2000	-0.220*** (0.034)	-0.049 (0.147)
Latitude squared, 2000	0.004*** (0.001)	0.001 (0.002)
Longitude, 2000	0.083*** (0.028)	0.061 (0.088)
Longitude squared, 2000	0.0005*** (0.0002)	0.0004 (0.001)
Ruggedness	-0.00001 (0.0001)	-0.0004** (0.0002)
Gini coefficient, 1860	0.100** (0.044)	-0.023 (0.089)
Prop. small farms, 1860	0.008 (0.028)	0.018 (0.047)
Total population, 1860	-0.003 (0.006)	-0.0001 (0.011)
Farm value per capita, 1860	-0.012* (0.007)	0.007 (0.012)
Total improved acreage, 1860	-0.003 (0.006)	0.019 (0.012)
Prop. free black, 1860	0.483** (0.197)	0.887** (0.411)
Rail access, 1860	-0.010 (0.007)	-0.029*** (0.008)
Water access, 1860	-0.009 (0.006)	-0.012 (0.010)
Constant	5.847*** (1.298)	2.154 (5.202)
State fixed effects	Y	Y
Observations	875	335
R ²	0.373	0.176
Adjusted R ²	0.352	0.123
Residual Std. Error	0.379 (df = 846)	0.280 (df = 314)

Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

E. Matched sample of low slaveholding and Northern counties

A possible explanation for the main findings in Table ?? is that former large slaveholding counties tend to be more unequal today than counties with a lower proportion of enslaved people. In fact, studies examining the contemporary impact of slavery have found that it heightens racial resentment, exacerbates Black-White poverty, and reduces national and local economic development.

Much work has also examined the connection between slavery and lynching. Descriptive findings by Seguin and Rigby show that 97% of Black lynchings occurred in former slave states and accounted for 88% of total victims.³ Within states that allowed slavery in 1860, those with higher rates of slavery tended to have higher rates of victimization. Acharya, Blackwell, and Sen support this finding, showing that areas previously more reliant on slave labor experienced more lynchings between 1882 and 1930.⁴ The practice of lynching itself often employed skills and infrastructure developed by slave patrols.⁵ In a related study, Rigby and Seguin disentangle the legacy between lynching and slavery, finding that once slavery is accounted for, any relation between capital punishment and lynching disappears.⁶ Taken together, it may mean that slavery could be the root cause of lynchings and contemporary outcomes.

It is undoubtable that as an institution, slavery had a deep influence on the economic, political, and repressive systems that continue into the present. This study does not negate the impact of slavery nor its connection to lynching, but it does argue that the relationship is perhaps more conditional than expected and that lynchings can also impact contemporary outcomes. For one, lynching occurred mostly in slave states since most of the Black population resided within those states, at least until the Great Migration. In 1910, 89% of all Blacks lived in former slave states. Supporting this condition, Beck and Tolnay (1990) find that the size of the Black population is related to the occurrence of

³ Seguin and Rigby, “National Crimes: A New National Data Set of Lynchings in the United States, 1883 to 1941”

⁴ Acharya et al., “The Political Legacy of American Slavery”

⁵ Mattias Smångs, “Doing Violence, Making Race: Southern Lynching and White Racial Group Formation,” *American Journal of Sociology* 121 no. 5 (2016): 1329-1374.

⁶ Rigby and Seguin, “Capital punishment and the legacies of slavery and lynching in the United States.” Rigby and Seguin account for slavery by including the 1860 population of enslaved people as a control variable. I conducted a similar test in the main analysis and found that even after accounting for slavery, lynching still is associated with inequality. Undertaking a similar test as Rigby and Seguin suggests that lynching is correlated with immobility, though they were examining capital punishment and, therefore, different mechanisms may be at play.

lynching. Although, as noted before, most lynchings tended to occur in places with a larger former slave population.

In addition, as Seguin and Rigby point out, about 40% of counties (648) in states permitting the enslavement of people did not witness any lynchings.⁷ These include large parts of Missouri, North Carolina, Texas, and West Virginia. This may indicate different conditions across regions with counties relying greater on cotton agriculture — a potential indicator of some of the worst slavery conditions — seeing more lynchings. This stands in contrast to multiple Black victims in Northern counties with no history of institutionalized slavery.

Other underlying conditions may provide answers as to why variation at the county-level occurred. Religious composition may have played a role with counties that are more religiously diverse and have more racially segregated churches experiencing more lynchings.⁸ Smångs finds that public lynchings were a function of white racial solidarity.⁹ Differences in law enforcement may also explain variation, with areas more linked to the national economy being more responsive to violence.¹⁰

The timing of lynching may also provide answers as to why variation at the county-level occurred. Lynchings of Blacks peaked in the 1890s, with as many as 70 lynchings in 1893 alone. It is perhaps more difficult for slavery to explain the timing of lynchings, hinting at other potential underlying causes. To explain timing, scholars have often looked to other conditions. Raper found that violence against Blacks was linked to the value of Southern cotton crops, arguing that economic competition between marginal Black and white laborers increased as profits from crops fell.¹¹ Tolnay and Beck also found that lynchings were more common when the price of cotton declined.¹² Further highlighting the conditionality of economic conditions and violence, Tolnay and Beck (1992) find that counties with more out-migration tended to have fewer lynchings, attributing the decline to white elites attempting to maintain access to a cheap labor supply. Related, while Price, Darity, and

⁷ Seguin and Rigby, “National Crimes: A New National Data Set of Lynchings in the United States, 1883 to 1941”

⁸ Amy Kate Bailey and Karen A. Snedker, “Practicing What they Preach? Lynching and Religion in the American South, 1890-1929,” *American Journal of Sociology* 117 no. 3 (2011): 844-887.

⁹ Smångs, “Doing Violence, Making Race: Southern Lynching and White Racial Group Formation”

¹⁰ Elwood M. Beck, Stewart E. Tolnay, and Amy Kate Bailey, “Contested Terrain: The State versus Threatened Lynch Mob Violence.” *American Journal of Sociology* 121 no. 6 (2016): 1856-1884.

¹¹ Raper, Arthur F. *The tragedy of lynching*, Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press (1933).

¹² Tolnay and Beck, *A Festival of Violence: An Analysis of Southern Lynchings, 1882-1930*

Headen find that while former slave status explains some of the variation in lynching, they ultimately suggest that job competition is a more important explanatory factor.¹³ There is also evidence that lynchings tended to occur around elections.¹⁴

Still, it could be argued that slavery is the root cause of lynchings and other forms of violence that perpetuated racist attitudes and institutions, but as this discussion shows, there are other conditions that should be taken into account when considering the causes of racial violence. At the very least, this should serve as a call, as argued by Pfeifer, for more research on the origins and extent of informal collective violence in slavery, which informed collective racial violence that followed emancipation.¹⁵

The following analysis attempts to account for the legacy of slavery. If the estimated effect is attributable to lynching, then there should still be an effect in Southern counties with lower numbers of enslaved people, as well as in Northern counties without an enslaved population in 1860. In other words, if no association between lynching and immobility is found in counties with fewer or no enslaved people in 1860, then the case for the legacy of slavery found in the main results would be stronger.

To examine this, I analyze the difference between counties that experienced lynchings and counties that did not, using a sub-sample of Southern counties with a lower proportion of enslaved people and Northern counties with no enslaved people in 1860. I restrict the sample to Southern counties with a lower proportion of slaves in 1860 by dropping the top ten percentile of all counties in terms of the proportion of enslaved people. Then, I match these counties to similar non-slave Northern counties based on the propensity of a lynching occurring. This includes factors such as geography (latitude/longitude and elevation), county size, farm value per capita, Gini coefficient, mixed-race population, total county population, total improved acres, and rail and water access.

Tolnay and Beck's data does not cover the North. To measure lynchings in Northern states, I

¹³ Gregory N. Price, William A. Darity Jr, and Alvin E. Headen Jr, "Does the Stigma of Slavery Explain the Maltreatment of Blacks by Whites?: The Case of Lynchings," *The Journal of Socio-Economics* 37 no. 1 (2008): 167-193.

¹⁴ Jones, Daniel B., Werner Troesken, and Randall Walsh, "Political participation in a violent society: The impact of lynching on voter turnout in the post-Reconstruction South." *Journal of Development Economics* 129 (2017): 29-46.

¹⁵ Michael J Pfeifer, "At the Hands of Parties Unknown? The State of the Field of Lynching Scholarship," *The Journal of American History* 101 no. 3 (2014): 832-846.

use Seguin and Rigby’s dataset to extend Tolnay and Beck.¹⁶ While Seguin and Rigby use similar methods and data sources as Tolnay and Beck, there are differences (Seguin and Rigby did not use hard copies of newspapers, did not have access to the Tuskegee database, and only searched for specific lynching events). Therefore, caution should be used when interpreting results. With these limitations in mind, I include their data since it is the closest measure to that of Tolnay and Beck that covers the whole United States.

Lynching in the North was not as common as in the South. According to Seguin and Rigby’s dataset, the North witnessed about 70 lynchings of Blacks between 1883 and 1941.¹⁷ Lynchings occurred across 10 Northern states and 50 counties. The majority of these occurred in Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, and Ohio (61 in total).

I use genetic matching with Mahalanobis distance to generate a sub-sample for which the dichotomized treatment group is equal to 1 for any county with a lynching rate greater than 0. In total, 452 cases are matched, half of which are treated counties. Of the 226 treated counties, 34 are found in the North, while 56 are control cases. The remaining cases are Southern counties with a lower proportion of enslaved people in 1860. See Table E.2 for a list of Southern and Northern counties included within the matched sub-sample.

I assess balance by examining the mean differences between treated and control cases. The test reveals that balance improves after matching, as all mean differences improve after pairing observations. This suggests a minimizing difference across these samples. The balance summary for the matched sample is available in Figure E.1. A closer distribution enables the study to conduct an analysis using a balanced sub-sample of treated and control comparison cases, where the legacy of slavery should be more limited.

OLS results from the matched sample using a dichotomized version of the continuous treatment variable, shown in Model 1 of Table E.1, demonstrate that the findings are robust when restricting the analysis to comparable low and non-slaveholding counties. This suggests that the results are

¹⁶ Seguin and Rigby, “National Crimes: A New National Data Set of Lynchings in the United States, 1883 to 1941.”

¹⁷ Northern states include Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania. Northern states are selected based whether they Southern states. I include New York due to large number of Black residents in 1870, results hold without its inclusion.

unlikely to be solely attributable to the legacy of slavery. Additionally, the results in Model 2 of Table E.1 are robust to the use of a weighted sample using the original continuous treatment variable and all counties in the South and North as defined here.

This finding suggests that it is more likely that lynching has a separate and independent effect outside of slavery. Most lynchings occurred during a period in which many Black Americans were becoming economically more self-sufficient in their communities.¹⁸ Even if marginally more self-sufficient, freedom held out the prospect for a better life for the next generation. When Blacks took this opportunity, their lives, bodies, and wealth were destroyed. This finding provides further evidence that lynchings may continue to haunt the Black community today.

¹⁸ William Du Bois, *Black Reconstruction in America: Toward a History of the Part which Black Folk Played in the Attempt to Reconstruct Democracy in America, 1860-1880* (Milton Park: Routledge, 2017).

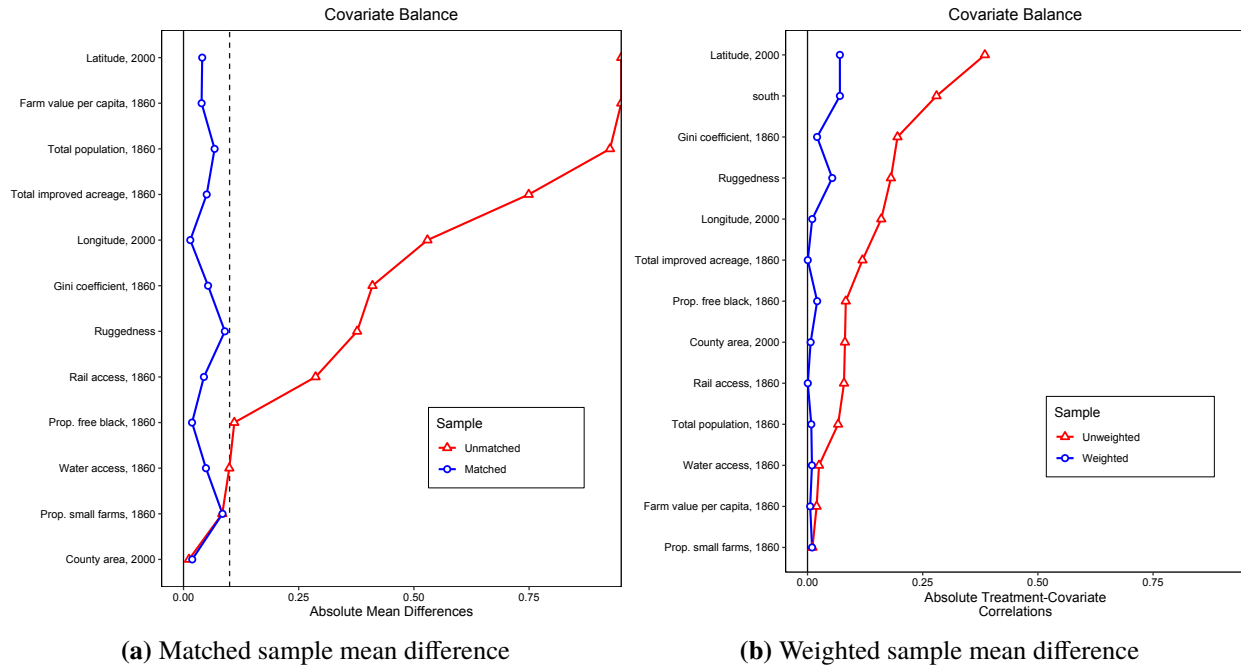


Figure E.1: Both figures show the mean difference before and after matching and weighting. To generate the matched sample for the lynch dummy treatment variable I use genetic matching with Mahalanobis distance. To generate the weighted sample for the continuous treatment variable I use distance covariance optimal weights.

Table E.1: Association is robust to restricting sample to low-slaveholding counties

	Matched Sample 1	Weighted Sample 2
Lynch Dummy	-0.008* (0.004)	
Lynch Rate		-0.023** (0.010)
County Area, 2000	0.006 (0.005)	0.001 (0.008)
Latitude, 2000	-0.011 (0.012)	-0.023 (0.025)
Latitude squared, 2000	0.0002 (0.0002)	0.0003 (0.0004)
Longitude, 2000	0.050*** (0.016)	0.194*** (0.032)
Longitude squared, 2000	0.0003*** (0.0001)	0.001*** (0.0002)
Ruggedness	0.00000 (0.00004)	0.0001 (0.001)
Gini coefficient, 1860	-0.025 (0.033)	-0.013 (0.058)
Prop. small farms, 1860	0.004 (0.017)	0.028 (0.032)
Total population, 1860	-0.004 (0.004)	-0.014* (0.008)
Farm value per capita, 1860	-0.001 (0.005)	-0.005 (0.009)
Total improved acreage, 1860	-0.003 (0.004)	0.006 (0.008)
Prop. free black, 1860	0.085 (0.113)	-0.587*** (0.156)
Rail access, 1860	0.007 (0.005)	0.001 (0.008)
Water access, 1860	-0.007** (0.004)	-0.007 (0.007)
Constant	2.698*** (0.662)	7.601*** (1.392)
State fixed effects	Y	Y
Observations	452	1,161
R ²	0.328	0.248
Adjusted R ²	0.269	0.223
Residual Std. Error	0.188 (df = 415)	0.099 (df = 1123)

Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01 Coefficients in model 1 are from a regression on the matched data with a dichotomized lynch rate dummy variable. Coefficients in model 2 are from a regression on the weighted data using a continuous lynch rate variable. Weights are generated using distance covariance optimal weights.

Table E.2: States and counties included in the matched sample by region

<i>South</i>		<i>North</i>		
State	County	State	County	
AL	Baldwin	IL	Bond	
	Clay		Bureau	
	Conecuh		Coles	
	Cullman		Jefferson	
	De Kalb		McHenry	
	Etowah		Macon	
	Fayette		Macoupin	
	Jackson		Marion	
	Lamar		Perry	
	Marion		Pulaski	
	Marshall		St. Clair	
	Randolph		Saline	
	Russell		Sangamon	
AR	Benton	IN	Tazewell	
	Clark		Vermilion	
	Conway		Clark	
	Crawford		Fayette	
	Cross		Grant	
	Drew		Harrison	
	Garland		Hendricks	
	Howard		Henry	
	Independence		Jackson	
	Jackson		Jefferson	
	Lincoln		Johnson	
	Logan		Knox	
	Mississippi		Kosciusko	
	Ouachita		Lake	
	Perry		La Porte	
	Pike		Lawrence	
	Pope		Monroe	
	Pulaski		Morgan	
	St. Francis		Posey	
Saline	Putnam			
Sebastian	Shelby			
Washington	Vigo			
White	Warrick			
Yell	Wayne			
FL	Alachua	IA	Des Moines	
	Bradford		Henry	
	Gadsden		Linn	
	Lake		Allegany	
	Madison		Carroll	
	Manatee		Prince George's	
	Nassau		Queen Anne's	
GA	Polk	MD	St. Mary's	
	St. Johns		Somerset	
	Wakulla		Talbot	
	Baldwin		Washington	
	Bibb		Worcester	
	Charlton		NJ	Middlesex
	Chattahoochee			Monmouth
	Cherokee		NY	Dutchess
	Clarke			Orange
	Clay		OH	Rensselaer
	Cobb			Tioga
	Decatur			Wyoming
	Floyd			Brown
	Forsyth			Butler
	Gordon			Carroll
	Hall			Champaign
	Hart			Clark
	Heard			Clermont
	Henry			Coshocton
Laurens	Cuyahoga			
Lumpkin	Darke			
Mitchell	Fayette			
Paulding	Greene			
Pickens	Harrison			
Quitman	Jackson			
Richmond	Jefferson			
Rockdale	Lake			
Schley	Lawrence			
Thomas	Logan			
Upson	Miami			
Walker	Morgan			
Washington	Muskingum			
White	Pike			
Whitfield	Tuscarawas			

KY	Adair	PA	Union	
	Allen		Warren	
	Anderson		Allegheny	
	Bell		Beaver	
	Boone		Clinton	
	Boyle		Delaware	
	Bullitt		Greene	
	Calloway		Huntingdon	
	Daviess		Mifflin	
	Fleming		Monroe	
	Franklin		Snyder	
	Grant		Somerset	
	Greenup			
	Hardin			
	Harlan			
	Harrison			
	Henderson			
	Henry			
	Jessamine			
	Knox			
	McCracken			
	Marion			
	Montgomery			
	Muhlenberg			
	Nelson			
	Oldham			
	Pulaski			
	Scott			
	Simpson			
	Todd			
	Union			
	Warren			
	Washington			
	LA		Jefferson	
			Lafayette	
			Lincoln	
			St. Helena	
			Terrebonne	
			Union	
			Vermilion	
	MS		Vernon	
Choctaw				
Covington				
Itawamba				
Jasper				
Lawrence				
Leake				
Montgomery				
Tippah				
MO		Boone		
	Buchanan			
	Butler			
	Callaway			
	Cape Girardeau			
	Cass			
	Christian			
	Clinton			
	Dunklin			
	Franklin			
	Greene			
	Henry			
	Jackson			
	Johnson			
	Laclede			
	Lincoln			
	Macon			
	Marion			
	Mississippi			
	New Madrid			
	Newton			
	Pemiscot			
	Pettis			
Randolph				
Ray				
St. Charles				
St. Louis				
Scott				
NC	Alexander			
	Bertie			
	Brunswick			
	Burke			
	Caldwell			
	Carteret			
	Catawba			
Cherokee				

	Chowan
	Columbus
	Craven
	Cumberland
	Currituck
	Dare
	Davie
	Duplin
	Durham
	Forsyth
	Franklin
	Gates
	Granville
	Halifax
	Haywood
	Henderson
	Iredell
	Johnston
	Lincoln
	McDowell
	Macon
	Martin
	Mecklenburg
	Montgomery
	Nash
	New Hanover
	Orange
	Pamlico
	Pender
	Perquimans
	Pitt
	Polk
	Randolph
	Rockingham
	Scotland
	Stanly
	Surry
	Transylvania
	Vance
	Wake
	Washington
	Wayne
	Wilkes
	Wilson
	Yadkin
SC	Aiken
	Bamberg
	Barnwell
	Berkeley
	Charleston
	Greenville
	Horry
	Marlboro
	Spartanburg
	Union
TN	Anderson
	Bedford
	Benton
	Blount
	Cannon
	Carter
	Chester
	Cocke
	Decatur
	Dickson
	Gibson
	Greene
	Hamblen
	Hardin
	Hawkins
	Hickman
	Humphreys
	Jefferson
	Knox
	Lake
	Lauderdale
	Lawrence
	Lewis
	McNairy
	Marion
	Monroe
	Obion
	Putnam
	Rhea
	Sevier

	Stewart
	Sumner
	Tipton
	Trousdale
	Warren
	Washington
	White
TX	Aransas
	Atascosa
	Bee
	Bexar
	Burnet
	Calhoun
	Cameron
	Camp
	Chambers
	Colorado
	Cooke
	Coryell
	Dallas
	Denton
	De Witt
	Erath
	Franklin
	Galveston
	Goliad
	Grayson
	Guadalupe
	Hidalgo
	Hood
	Hunt
	Jackson
	Johnson
	Kerr
	Lampasas
	Medina
	Montgomery
	Nueces
	Palo Pinto
	Panola
	Parker
	Rains
	San Jacinto
	San Patricio
	Stephens
	Travis
	Van Zandt
	Victoria
	Washington
	Webb
	Wise
	Young
VA	Albemarle
	Alleghany
	Amherst
	Appomattox
	Bedford
	Botetourt
	Buckingham
	Campbell
	Caroline
	Chesterfield
	Clarke
	Culpeper
	Fairfax
	Fauquier
	Fluvanna
	Frederick
	Goochland
	Grayson
	Hanover
	Henry
	Isle of Wight
	King George
	Lancaster
	Madison
	Mathews
	Middlesex
	Montgomery
	Nelson
	New Kent
	Northumberland
	Orange
	Page
	Patrick

Pittsylvania
Pulaski
Roanoke
Rockingham
Shenandoah
Southampton
Spotsylvania
Stafford
Tazewell
Warren
Washington
Wise
Wythe
Roanoke
WV Berkeley
Cabell
Fayette
Greenbrier
Harrison
Jefferson
Kanawha
Logan
McDowell
Mercer
Mingo
Monongalia
Putnam
Raleigh
Summers

F. Results for different time periods

To examine whether the legacy of Jim Crow is driving the results, I subset the data to only include violence that took place before the end of Reconstruction in 1877. Even though many Jim Crow laws did not go into effect until the 1890s, the end of Reconstruction signaled the start of mandated racial segregation and voting restrictions that came to define the era. If no difference exists between counties that experienced lynchings and those that did not before 1877, then that would provide evidence that the legacy of Jim Crow, rather than lynchings, may be driving the results. The results in Model 1 of Table F.1 show that lynchings before the start of Jim Crow are correlated with contemporary Black immobility.

I also test whether different periods within the lynching era are driving the results. It is possible that earlier or later lynchings have a greater impact on generational mobility. However, the results across Models 1-3 in Table F.1 suggest that lynchings, regardless of the time period, have an impact on mobility.

Table F.1: Association remains after restricting sample to different time periods

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>		
	Intergenerational Mobility		
	Reconstruction 1865-1877 (1)	Before great migration 1877-1910 (2)	During great migration 1910-1940 (3)
Lynch rate	-0.028** (0.013)	-0.027*** (0.007)	-0.026** (0.011)
Prop. slave, 1860	0.023 (0.024)	0.026 (0.024)	0.027 (0.024)
County Area, 2000	0.023*** (0.006)	0.025*** (0.006)	0.025*** (0.006)
Latitude, 2000	-0.155*** (0.030)	-0.152*** (0.030)	-0.154*** (0.030)
Latitude squared, 2000	0.003*** (0.0005)	0.002*** (0.0005)	0.003*** (0.0005)
Longitude, 2000	0.104*** (0.029)	0.095*** (0.029)	0.101*** (0.029)
Longitude squared, 2000	0.001*** (0.0002)	0.001*** (0.0002)	0.001*** (0.0002)
Ruggedness	0.00002 (0.0001)	0.00000 (0.0001)	0.00003 (0.0001)
Gini coefficient, 1860	0.075* (0.045)	0.087** (0.044)	0.091** (0.044)
Prop. small farms, 1860	0.027 (0.027)	0.017 (0.027)	0.019 (0.027)
Total population, 1860	-0.010* (0.006)	-0.008 (0.006)	-0.009 (0.006)
Farm value per capita, 1860	-0.011* (0.007)	-0.011* (0.007)	-0.012* (0.007)
Total improved acreage, 1860	0.001 (0.006)	-0.001 (0.006)	-0.001 (0.006)
Prop. free black, 1860	0.511** (0.204)	0.498** (0.203)	0.499** (0.204)
Rail access, 1860	-0.003 (0.007)	-0.003 (0.006)	-0.002 (0.007)
Water access, 1860	-0.007 (0.006)	-0.009 (0.006)	-0.008 (0.006)
Constant	5.735*** (1.271)	5.317*** (1.271)	5.614*** (1.273)
State fixed effects	Y	Y	Y
Observations	929	930	930
R ²	0.338	0.345	0.339
Adjusted R ²	0.317	0.324	0.317
Residual Std. Error	0.398 (df = 899)	0.395 (df = 900)	0.397 (df = 900)

Note:

*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

G. Results when limited to historically rural counties

Table G.1: Association remains after restricting sample to rural counties

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>
	Intergenerational Mobility
Lynch rate	−0.018*** (0.007)
Prop. slave, 1860	0.001 (0.025)
County Area, 2000	0.005 (0.008)
Latitude, 2000	−0.158*** (0.032)
Latitude squared, 2000	0.003*** (0.0005)
Longitude, 2000	0.135*** (0.030)
Longitude squared, 2000	0.001*** (0.0002)
Ruggedness	−0.00004 (0.0001)
Gini coefficient, 1860	0.120** (0.047)
Prop. small farms, 1860	−0.0001 (0.028)
Total population, 1860	−0.0004 (0.006)
Farm value per capita, 1860	−0.014** (0.007)
Total improved acreage, 1860	−0.004 (0.006)
Prop. free black, 1860	0.351 (0.221)
Rail access, 1860	0.001 (0.007)
Water access, 1860	0.0001 (0.007)
Constant	7.076*** (1.329)
State fixed effects	Y
Observations	861
R ²	0.365
Adjusted R ²	0.343
Residual Std. Error	0.386 (df = 831)

Note: *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01